

The Airman and the Weather

Aeronautic Meteorology: A New Branch of Applied Science

By Charles Fitzhugh Talman

AERONAUTICAL meteorology is to the aeronaut what maritime meteorology and hydrography, together, are to the mariner. That it is destined to play an all-important part in the navigation of the air is so obvious as to require no demonstration. Taking this for granted, there are, however, certain questions to be answered in order to fix the status of this branch of knowledge in the aeronautical curriculum. How much, actually, do we know about the laws of the atmosphere bearing on aeronautics? Has the science reached a practical stage, or is it still so tentative and uncertain that, for the present, the individual aeronaut should look upon his personal experience as a safer guide than the generalized knowledge now available? Is the meteorologist still, as formerly, learning more about the free atmosphere from the aeronaut than the latter is learning from the meteorologist?

If for any reason the world became interested in blowing soap bubbles we should not have long to wait for an exhaustive "Lehrbuch der Seifenblasenkunde" from Germany. It was in the normal order of events that a German gave us the first text book of aeronautical meteorology¹, and that we are promised from the same pen a companion work on aeronautical climatology; but it is safe to say that few meteorologists were prepared to find in Dr. Linke's pioneer work a complete new branch of applied science, embodying a wealth of information not only useful, but indispensable, to every person who risks life and limb in navigating the air. This book fully answers the questions we raised a moment ago. Aeronautical meteorology has arrived.

The present writer has reviewed Linke's book in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN (June 24th, 1911, p. 630, and April 20th, 1912, p. 368), and it is not necessary to repeat here what has already been said about its many merits. The young German author, though himself a practical aeronaut as well as a meteorologist, is of course primarily a mere spokesman for the scientific aeronauts of his country, and his work reflects credit upon many besides himself. Our purpose now is simply to cite a few facts from the work in question, and from other recent literature, serving to show to what extent meteorology is already prepared to take up the new tasks imposed upon it by the sudden efflorescence of the art of aeronautics.

It was a providential circumstance that meteorologists had made a substantial beginning in the systematic study of the upper air a few years before the invention of the first practical aeroplanes and dirigible balloons. The new science of aerology—i. e., the survey of the atmosphere throughout its vertical extent, by all possible methods—dating, as a coherent body of knowledge, from about the beginning of the present century, pushes its investigations some three hundred miles above the earth. The balloonist, in extreme cases, rises 6½ miles; the aviator, 2½ miles. Thus it happens that much of the matter of aerology has no direct bearing on aeronautics. Even the remarkable isothermal layer, or stratosphere, the discovery of which, in the year 1902, marked an epoch in the history of science, lies at such an altitude that it is doubtful whether any human being will ever travel up to its lower boundary; though it is now almost daily entered by unmanned balloons carrying self-registering instruments. As to the lofty regions, beyond the reach of the sounding-balloon, in which the atmosphere is no longer "air," but hydrogen, or helium, or "geocoron-

¹ F. Linke, *Aeronautische Meteorologie*, 2 vols., Frankfurt a. M., 1911.

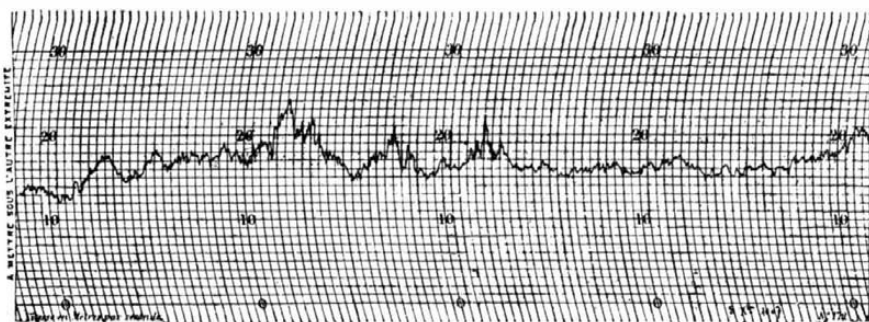
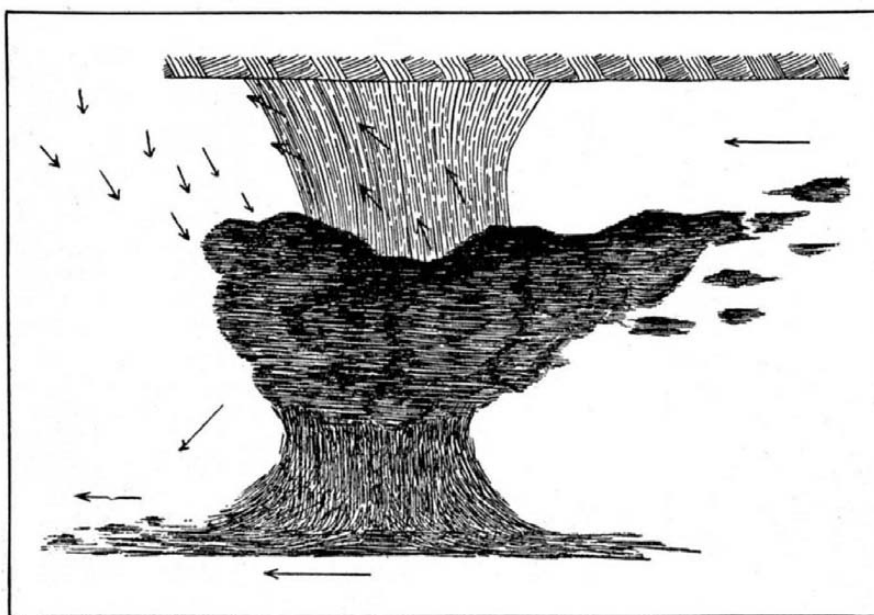
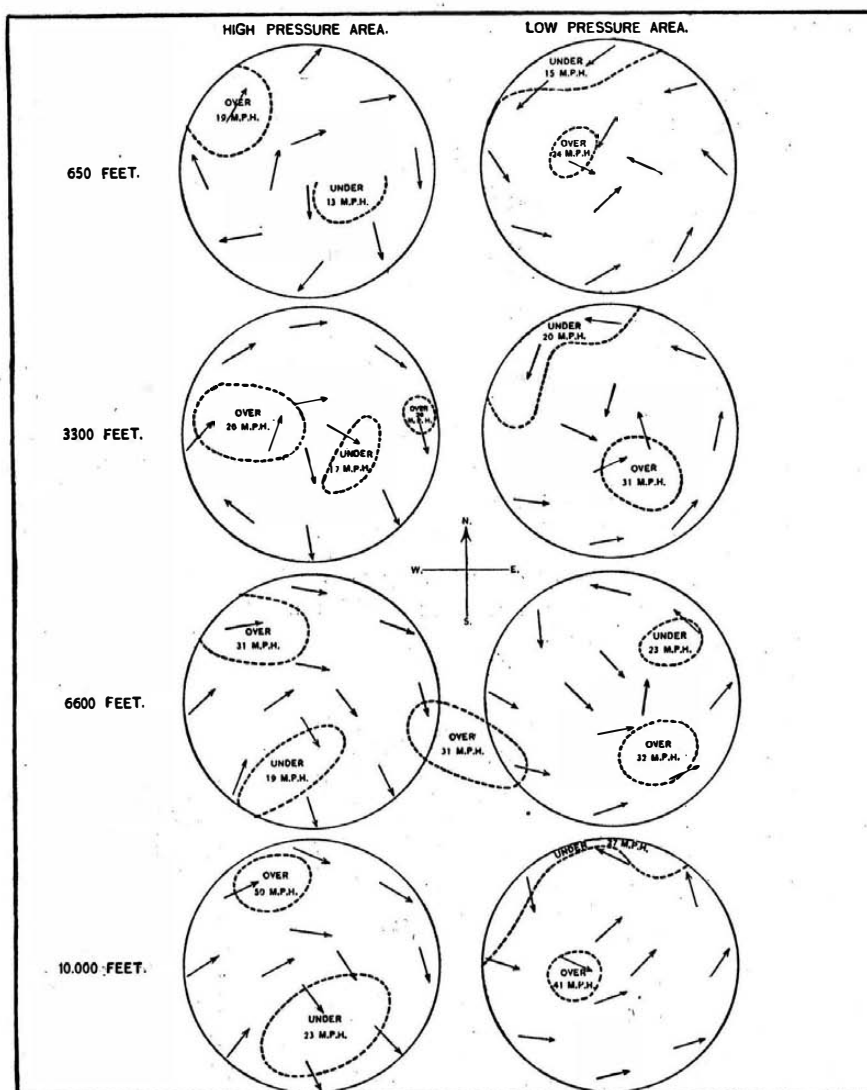


Fig. 1.—Gustiness of the wind. Shown by the record of a Richard anemocinograph. The speed of the wind at each moment is here registered in meters per second.



From Linke's *Aeronautische Meteorologie*.

Fig. 2.—"It is notorious that the greatest enemy of all kinds of air-navigation is the thunderstorm; . . . not only because of its electrical dangers, but because of the strong vertical air movements by which it is attended."—Linke.



From Rotch and Palmer's *Charts of the Atmosphere* (New York, 1911: John Wiley & Sons).

Fig. 3.—Variations of the force and the direction of winds at different altitudes in high and low-pressure areas.

ium," or what-not, these are of no more practical concern to the aerial navigator than to the prosaic wayfarer on *terra firma*.

However, in order to reach the stratosphere every sounding-balloon must pass through the troposphere, and all ascents of meteorological kites are confined within this lower stratum. Thus the great bulk of the data acquired by the aerologist pertains to regions accessible to the aeronaut.

Before all things else the aeronaut is interested in the wind. The combined labors of the aerologist and the aeronautical engineer have completely upset old-fashioned ideas concerning this element. No longer do we think of a wind as a steady horizontal stream of air, in which every particle is moving at the same speed as every other particle. Such a wind would be a boon to the aeronaut if it existed, but it does not—as was first conclusively proved by Langley, and as is shown in the record of every aerological observation. In the first place, a wind is rarely horizontal, but has, instead, a more or less pronounced vertical component, of which the ordinary wind-vane and anemometer give not the slightest token. In the second place, no wind is absolutely steady or homogeneous; and most winds are quite the reverse. When two anemometers are placed side by side, a few feet apart, one of them may, for a brief period, indicate a velocity twice as great as the other. Moreover, a single anemometer, if sufficiently delicate, will show incessant fluctuations in the strength of the wind. This "gustiness" is not well brought out in the records of the ordinary registering anemometer, but it is strikingly shown in those of the Dines pressure-tube anemometer, or the Richard anemocinograph (Fig. 1), or the apparatus attached to the winch of a meteorological kite for recording the tension on the kite-wire.

That the wind commonly has a vertical component, that gustiness is the rule rather than the exception, and that great variations in velocity occur from one place to another, are facts that the aeronaut would soon find out for himself. It is the business of the meteorologist to tell him under what conditions he may expect these features to be most pronounced or most persistent, and what limiting magnitudes they may assume.

For example, the meteorologist teaches the aeronaut to distinguish the typical forms of clouds, for the very practical purpose of enabling him to recognize those forms which are characteristic of vertical air movements, and those which denote mainly horizontal movements. A cumulus cloud is proof positive of the existence of a strong ascending current beneath it; while in the intervals between neighboring cumuli the air is likely to be sinking. Prof. Humphreys has happily described these vertical movements as "aerial fountains" and "aerial cataracts," and has shown that they are among the numerous causes of the so-called "hole in the air."

What maximum speed may be attained by vertical air currents? This is a question that the aeronaut would hardly care to have answered by a personal encounter with the extreme case of the phenomenon. The meteorologist, with the statistics of almost innumerable observations at his command, is able to tell him that ascending currents sometimes move at the rate of 25 or 30 feet a second, and that these rapid movements in the vertical occur especially in connection with thunder-squalls. Furthermore, the meteorologist

(Concluded on page 101.)

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nuclear division figures, with various kinds of outgrowths, had been described by Leduc in earlier writings, together with the osmotic growths of various kinds, suggesting molds, sea-weeds, toadstools, etc. Both series of phenomena were referred to and illustrated in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, September 9th and 23rd, 1911. Fig. 4 is a reproduction of one of Leduc's "artificial" nerve cells, shown alongside of a ganglionic cell (Fig. 5) prepared by Demoor according to Golgi's method. Leduc's "cell" was produced by placing a "seed" consisting of two parts of copper sulphate and one part of cane sugar in a solution of ferrocyanide of potassium. A precipitate of copper ferrocyanide is formed on the surface; this is impervious to sugar, but water is readily absorbed through it, leading to "growth" in all directions, the final form depending upon the precise distribution of the particles of sugar and of copper sulphate in the medium, etc.

Much of the argument in the book is devoted to showing that the lines of dynamic discharge are essentially the same in an organism and in organic media. To this end illustrations are derived from a comparison of electric discharges and crystallization figures with ferns and other plant structures. Fig. 8 is the electric discharge resembling a leaf; Fig. 10, an electrolytic pattern suggesting a fern frond; Fig. 11, a crystallization of ammonium chloride in gelatin suggesting plant forms; Fig. 9, four successive stages in "karyokinetic" figures produced by diffusion; Fig. 12, a modification of diffusion currents by contact of a glass rod, illustrating irritability; and Fig. 13 shows "negative heliotropism" of diffusion currents of India ink in salt solution.

With wonderful patience and ingenuity Prof. Leduc has taken up in turn the commonly recognized characteristics of living cells—their structure, their absorption of nutrients, their nuclear division, their irritability, the circulation, the relation of temperature to function, their transformation of energy—and has reproduced each phenomenon in turn in a preparation which is admittedly "non-living." But has he thereby made an approach to the artificial synthesis of life? All that we can learn from these experiments is that the laws of motion and of matter are as evident in the world of living things as in the world of non-living; that motion here is along the line of least resistance as it is there; that the mechanics and the electric and the chemics of living cells are the same as those of non-living systems.

The chapter on the origin of life and spontaneous generation is a sane statement of the problem, and in it Dr. Leduc points out the logical necessity of assuming that life not only did originate "spontaneously"—in a scientific sense—but may do so again under suitable conditions. He also points out the evasion of the issue involved in such theories as that of Arrhenius in regard to the extra-terrestrial origin of life.

Whether the methods of Leduc ever reach the bottom of the problem or not, these experiments have their value in clearing the field of much conjectural rubbish and confusion; and as for the synthesis—that has not yet reached the experimental stage.

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(Continued from page 94.)

is now able to draw a vertical plan of the thundersquall (Fig. 2), tracing its quasi-circulation about a horizontal axis, as a guide to the maneuvers the airman should adopt if overtaken by a storm of this character. This is strikingly analogous to the task of the nineteenth century meteorologist in tracing the ground plan of the cyclone, and teaching the mariner how to avoid the "dangerous semicircle."

However, the aeronaut needs horizontal as well as vertical plans of the wind systems he is likely to encounter—cyclones and anticyclones, land and sea breezes, trade winds and antitrades, and all the



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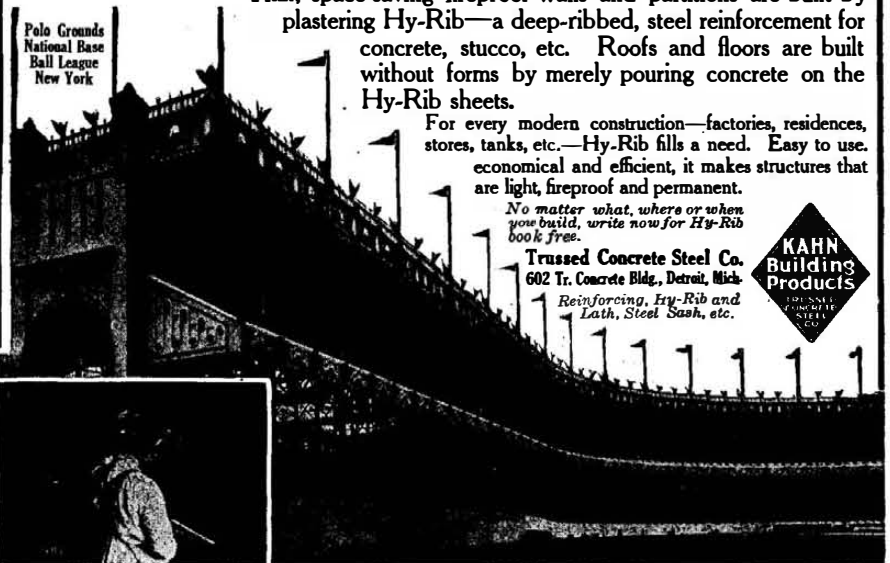
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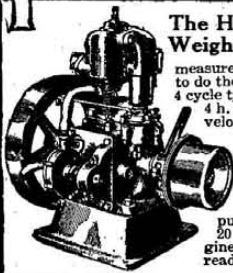


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other members of the atmospheric circulation. He needs to know, for example, the relation of the winds to the isobars at various levels in a typical cyclonic disturbance. It is a distinct advantage to him to learn that, while at the earth's surface the winds blow spirally inward toward the center of a depression, at the mile-level overhead they are no longer inclined inward, but blow in such a direction that the isobars on the surface weather map correspond approximately with the motion of a free balloon at such a level. Thus aeronautical meteorology, which is a science of three dimensions, is vastly more complicated than marine meteorology, which is a science of only two.

Let us repeat, however, that in spite of the magnitude of the tasks imposed upon it, aeronautical meteorology has already reached a stage of great practical utility. A single illustration will make this clear. Suppose plans were on foot to establish a regular airship service across the Atlantic, where would be the most favorable route? Meteorology is ready to answer this question. For the westward journey there is one region, and one only, in which the winds are favorable throughout the year, viz., the trade-wind belt. For the eastward journey a sea-level wind chart might suggest the advantage of a more northerly route, in the zone of "prevailing westerlies." Aerology, however, can better this suggestion. The winds of middle latitudes, although westerly in terms of averages and resultants, are actually subject to the vicissitudes attending the frequent passage of cyclonic disturbances. There is only one region in which there is a tolerably steady drift from west to east, and this is the zone of the anti-trades,² lying vertically over the trade winds. Hence the first transatlantic airships will probably sail from southern Europe to the West Indies at a low level, and return in the same latitudes at a level a few thousand feet higher. The tropical hurricanes that occasionally invade this region during the late summer and early autumn will be announced by wireless telegraphy from the meteorological bureaus, and the aerial liners will give them a wide berth—or possibly rise to the upper level of the storm itself and take advantage of the outflowing winds at that level to get away from the storm center.

Aerologists have now been at work for several years sounding the air above the trade-wind belt. The trades are found to be quite shallow, and their depth varies considerably with latitude.

We have not space here for even the most summary digest of the science of aeronautical meteorology, but must limit ourselves to an enumeration of its principal subdivisions. We have already devoted considerable space to the wind, as the subject of capital importance. Under this head let us add that valuable statistics have been compiled as to the variation of the force and the direction of the wind with altitude (see, for example, Fig. 3); that the average windiness of various places on the earth's surface has been determined, in order to point out the most favorable locations for aerial harbors and aerodromes; that the relation of the winds at moderate altitudes to the topography of the land has been worked out in great detail; and that ingenious forms of apparatus (e. g., the vertical anemometer and the pilot-balloon) have been devised, to supplement the ordinary anemometer and wind-vane for aeronautical purposes. The elaborate investigations on wind pressure and the like carried out in aerodynamic laboratories, belong to engineering rather than to meteorology.

Temperature is a very important factor in ballooning; less important in aviation. Here, again, aerology has gathered a great fund of information. We know not only the normal temperature gradients in the atmosphere, but also under what condi-

² The term "antitrade" is sometimes used in a broad sense to include not only the high-level wind above the trades, but also the supposed extension of this wind at sea-level in higher latitudes, i. e., the "westerlies" of the temperate zone. It is here applied to the upper current of the tropical belt only.

tions these gradients are likely to be interrupted or reversed. The typical vertical and horizontal distribution of temperature in cyclones and anticyclones—a subject concerning which very erroneous opinions formerly prevailed—has now been approximately determined.

So with the other meteorological elements. Each of them, thanks to the advent of aerology, has now been studied for several years from the three-dimensional point of view, which is the point of view of aeronautics.

Of the special storm warning services for aeronauts recently established or projected we have not space to speak. They are the logical corollary of the science of aeronautical meteorology, and will soon be commonplace institutions the world over.

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By L. E. Haskell!

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Device for detecting the flight of mosquitoes.

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¶ This book describes in detail in a most practical manner the various methods of casting concrete for ornamental and useful purposes. It tells how to make all kinds of concrete vases, ornamental flower pots, concrete pedestals, concrete benches, concrete fences, etc. Full practical instructions are given for constructing and finishing the different kinds of molds, making the wire forms or frames, selecting and mixing the ingredients, covering the wire frames, modeling the cement mortar into form, and casting and finishing the various objects. With the information given in this book, any handy man or novice can make many useful and ornamental objects in cement for the adornment of the home or garden. The information on color work alone is worth many times the cost of the book.

Any of these books will be sent post-paid on receipt of advertised price

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